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A New Mode of Chipping Fracture in Brittle Solids, and Its Application in a Model for Wear Under Fixed Abrasive Conditions

I. Mode of Chipping Fracture

II. Wear Model

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Interim Report for Period July 1, 1974 through June 30, 1975

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, Frederick B. Dent, Secretary

NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS, Richard W. Roberts, Director

I. On the Mode of Chipping Fracture in Brittle Solids

Chipping processes in brittle solids, despite their unquestionable relevance to a diversity of technologies from ceramics finishing to geological engineering, are not well understood at the fundamental level. Some recent studies of microfracture patterns beneath standard hardness indenters do, however, provide some insight into the problem^{1,2}, and it is our objective here to indicate how this insight may be applied to construct a physical model of chipping fracture.

Essentially, the picture which emerges is that depicted in Fig. 1:

(i) Upon loading the indenter, a confined zone of irreversible (plastic) deformation forms about any sharp points or corners (thereby accounting for the residual hardness impression), from which "median vent" cracks first initiate and subsequently propagate radially outward along suitable planes of symmetry (e.g. as defined by the diagonals of a pyramid indenter, or by preferred cleavage planes) containing the contact axis; (ii) Upon unloading the indenter, the median vents close up, but, just prior to complete removal, "lateral vent" cracks initiate and extend laterally from the deformation zone toward the specimen surface. Of the two types of cracking it is clearly the second which relates more directly to brittle chipping.

Yet up till now a detailed fracture mechanics analysis has been attempted only for the median vent system. This system is relatively well defined, since the indentation stress field, which uniquely determines the extent of crack growth¹, can reasonably be represented in terms of the classical Boussinesq field for normal point loading^{2, 3}. On the basis of the fundamental Griffith energy-balance condition for fracture⁴, it may readily be argued that brittle cracks will generally

tend to follow trajectories of the lesser principal stresses within the indentation field, such that the path maintains near-orthogonality to a component of major tension: the best studied illustration of this principle is the Hertzian cone crack^{5, 6}, which, in the absence of any deformation-induced nucleation center, initiates from an incipient surface flaw and flares downward into the specimen.

In the scheme of Fig. 2, in which the principal stresses are defined such that $\sigma_{11} \geq \sigma_{22} \geq \sigma_{33}$ (positive values denoting tension) nearly everywhere, median vent geometry may be specified in terms of families of σ_{11} and σ_{33} trajectories, cone crack geometry in terms of families of σ_{22} and σ_{33} trajectories.

The conditions under which the lateral vents form are, unfortunately, less easily modelled. Since the lateral system operates only as the indenter is withdrawn from the specimen surface it is evident that the driving force for propagation must originate from some residual stress field associated with the irreversible deformation zone.

This conclusion is substantiated by microscopic investigation of the damage patterns as a function of indenter geometry (e.g. "sharp" or "blunt"): in general, the extent of lateral venting is found to increase markedly with expanding zone size. A graphic illustration of the effect is obtained by loading a soda-lime glass plate with a small (1mm diam.) spherical indenter: at comparatively low load the contact is elastic, and the only fracture is that of cone cracking, whereas at higher load some plasticity develops beneath the penetrating sphere, and lateral venting becomes evident in the unloaded plate.¹

A related effect was reported by Culf⁷, who observed otherwise

regular cone cracks in glass to deflect upward ("hat brim" effect) upon sudden release of the indenter load. Culf also observed considerable residual stress birefringence in association with this phenomenon, over distances large compared with the scale of the deformation zone itself. That residual stresses exist about hardness impressions in most brittle materials has been amply demonstrated by a number of strain-sensitive techniques⁸. That these stresses can also be moderately long-range in nature is seen most clearly in the distances over which relaxation by plastic flow (e.g. dislocation loop punching) occurs in annealing experiments⁹. Neither the existence nor the intensity of the residual elastic fields should come as any surprise, for the stress levels achieved beneath the indenter in hardness tests on highly brittle solids tend to be of the order of the intrinsic bond strength of the structure^{10, 11}, and the relief of these high stresses would ideally require the impressed region to restore completely to its original unstrained state.

These observations, coupled with a reexamination of the Boussinesq field, provide us with a working model upon which to base an analysis of lateral vent formation. We note that the lateral vents extend in all cases on surfaces closely delineated by families of σ_{11} and σ_{22} trajectories in Fig. 2 (although the paths are modified somewhat by the deformation zone itself, and by free surfaces, including any preexisting median vents or cone cracks); it is as if the applied load were actually reversed upon indenter withdrawal, so that the σ_{33} stress normal to the lateral vent becomes the dominant component of tension in the field. Of course, it is

physically meaningless to associate a reversed applied load with a surface in the unloaded state, but an effectively similar net result may obtain if the deformation zone were to act as a center of contraction with respect to the surrounding elastic matrix. This effect is depicted schematically in Fig. 3. The distribution of stresses at the zone boundary must inevitably depend strongly on the nature of the irreversible deformation (which itself remains an issue of some controversy^{11, 12}).

Nevertheless, one can proceed by making reasonable assumptions as to this distribution (e.g. that the tractions are of constant magnitude, and are directed such that the net force is zero), and evaluate the residual field in the matrix by taking expressions for the stresses due to elemental point forces (e.g. Mindlin¹³) and integrating around the boundary. One may then construct a stress trajectory pattern for the field, in analogy to Fig. 2, and thereby trace out prospective fracture paths from the deformation zone. Full details of such calculations will be discussed elsewhere; we simply report here that the predicted paths do indeed curve toward the specimen surface in essentially the manner shown in Fig. 1.

The scope of the present model extends well beyond the establishment of a suitable basis for evaluating an "index of brittleness" in standard hardness testing¹⁴. It provides physical insight into a number of seemingly unrelated phenomena in brittle solids:

(i) Strength degradation. Surface damage introduced into a brittle surface as a result of contact (either static or impact) with hard particles constitutes a potential source of weakness. The mechanics of the damage process may be conveniently simulated in a simple indentation test¹⁵.

(ii) Glass cutting. A glass cutter's wheel is designed to produce a continuous "trailing" median vent as a linear starting crack for subsequent plate fracture in flexure. However, lateral venting invariably occurs in the wake of the moving "indenter", thereby damaging the edges of the final cut. Clearly, the need here is for a means of suppressing the chipping mode.

(iii) Surface removal processes. Individual chipping events in the machining, drilling, grinding, abrasion, erosion and wear of brittle surfaces in general (e.g. ceramics, gemstones, rocks) are of the type depicted in Fig. 1¹. By summing over an appropriate distribution of such microscopic events, it should be possible to describe macroscopic surface removal parameters at a fundamental level.

(iv) Geophysical impact phenomena. Meteorite-induced craters ranging in scale from geological land masses¹⁶ to lunar fines¹⁷ bear a resemblance to the damage pattern in Fig. 1 which can only be described as striking. While thermal and stress-wave effects associated with the high-velocity impacts are undoubtedly important factors in these cases¹⁸, the possible role of residual stresses about the central "deformation zone" in determining crater morphology may warrant further attention.

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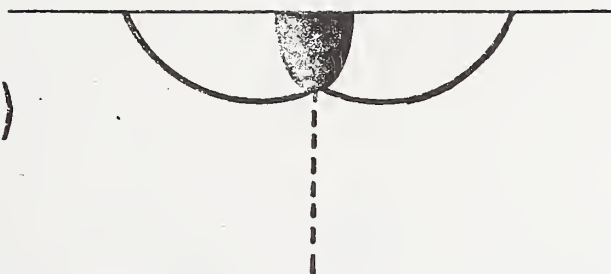
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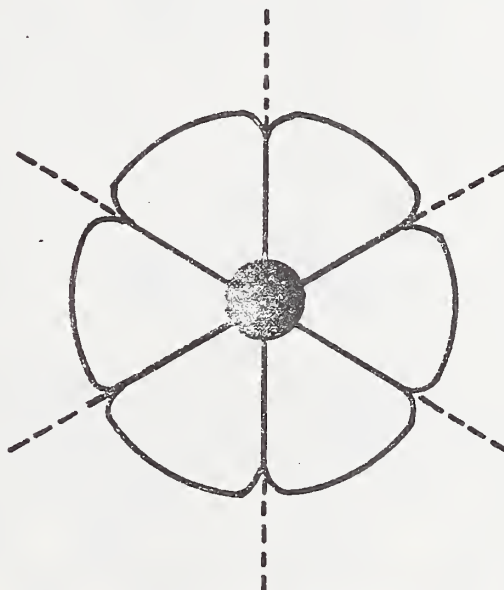
Figure Captions

1. Fracture geometry beneath sharp indenter. Central deformation zone shown as dark region, median vent cracks as broken lines, lateral vent cracks as heavy lines. (a) Section view schematic, (b) plan view schematic, (c) surface view of fused silica indented with sharp, irregular particle (scanning electron micrograph, field width 3mm).
2. Stress trajectories (curves whose tangent indicates direction of principal stress) for Boussinesq field, showing half-surface view (top) and section view (bottom). Cone cracks initiate from incipient surface flaws and propagate everywhere orthogonally to σ_{11} (tensile outside contact area), median vents initiate from central deformation zone and propagate orthogonally to σ_{22} (tensile below contact zone), lateral vents initiate from deformation zone and propagate nearly orthogonally to σ_{33} (compressive everywhere, but tensile if applied load reversed).
3. Schematic representation of distribution of mismatch tractions at boundary between central deformation zone and surrounding elastic matrix, at indenter withdrawal.

(a)

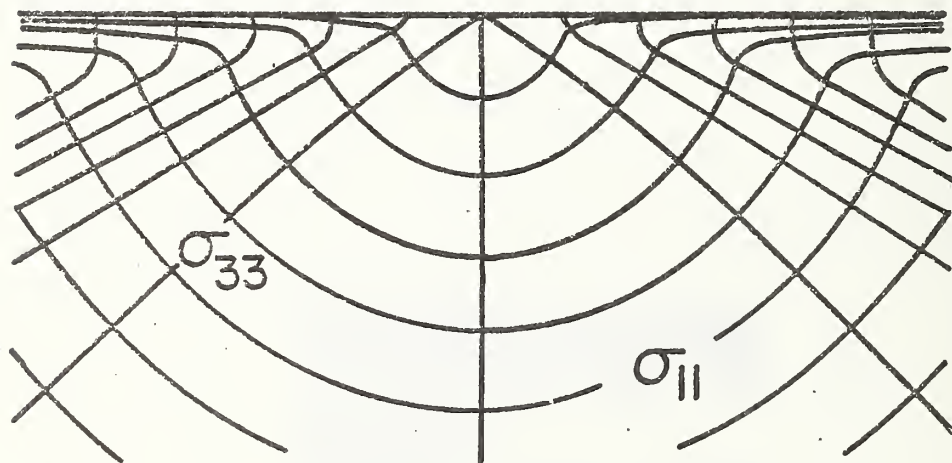
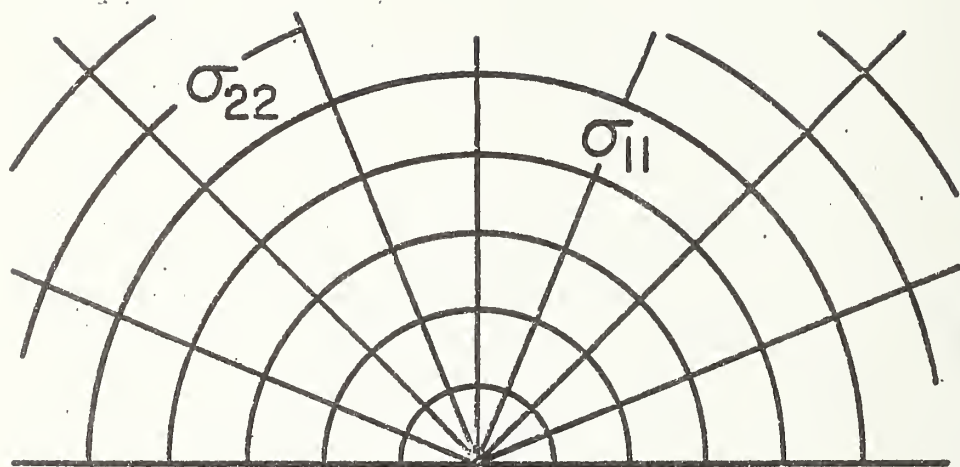


(b)

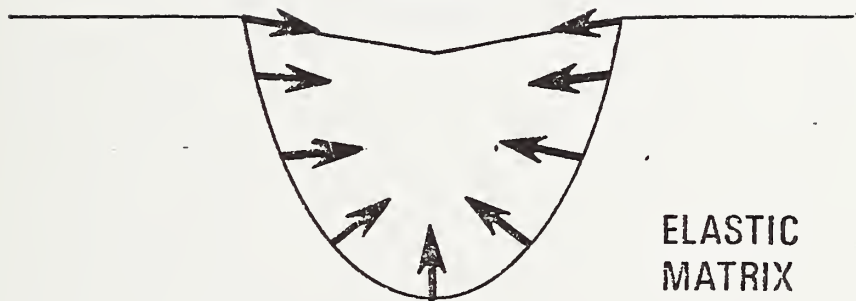


(c)





DEFORMATION
ZONE



ELASTIC
MATRIX

II. A Model for the Wear of Brittle Solids
Under Fixed Abrasive Conditions

Other than that the wear mechanism involves some microfracturing, and the wear rate is remarkably high, relatively little is known about the abrasion of highly brittle solids^{1,2}; this despite intense current interest in the machining and finishing of brittle surfaces within the ceramics engineering industry³. However, with the advent of "indentation fracture mechanics" a new approach has become available for investigating a wide range of small-scale cracking phenomena⁴. The purpose of the present note is to use this approach to construct an explicit model of the wear process in brittle solids, for the simple case of a "fixed" abrasive medium ("two-body" process) in which the grit particles are "ideally sharp."

A schematic representation of the wear mechanism is given in Figure 1. Macroscopically, one measures the wear rate $\dot{\underline{V}} = d\underline{V}/dt$ (\underline{V} = volume removed) appropriate to a specified total load \underline{P} and velocity \underline{v}_0 for the abrasive medium relative to the specimen. Microscopically, attention focusses on the individual chip-removal mechanism, characterized by an "indenter" load \underline{P}_i and velocity \underline{v}_0 (all "indenters" traverse the specimen with the same velocity in the two-body configuration). The idea is to start with a mechanical description of the removal process for the \underline{i} th indenter, and thence to sum over all such \underline{i} events to predict the macroscopic behavior.

To this end we resort to observations in "model" brittle solids (notably glass) of the fracture patterns beneath standard sharp indenters (e.g. cones, pyramids)^{5,6}, to build up the following picture. We consider the sliding particle \underline{i} to produce a "plastic"

deformation track of width $2a_i$. Then, for geometrically similar impressions, the mean indentation pressure at any instant of contact may be identified with the material hardness⁷,

$$\underline{p}_i = \underline{P}_i / \alpha \pi a_i^2 \approx \underline{H}, \quad (1)$$

where α is a factor determined by indenter geometry. Upon unloading, residual stresses, associated with incompatibility between deformation zone and surrounding elastic matrix, initiate and propagate lateral, chip-forming cracks (so-called "lateral vents"; other cracks form on loading, but these extend straight downward, and play only a secondary role in chipping). In this view, the size of the prospective chip is determined by the configuration of the hardness impression, so the chip area may be written

$$\underline{A}_i = \underline{\eta} \underline{a}_i^2, \quad (2)$$

where $\underline{\eta}$ is a linear scaling factor. The volume of material removed by the indenting particle in traversing through a distance $\Delta \underline{\ell}$ in an interval of time $\Delta \underline{t}$ is $\Delta \underline{V}_i = \underline{A}_i \Delta \underline{\ell}$, whence, from (1) and (2),

$$\dot{\underline{V}}_i = \Delta \underline{V}_i / \Delta \underline{t} = \underline{A}_i \Delta \underline{\ell} / \Delta \underline{t} = (\underline{\eta} \underline{v}_0 / \alpha \pi \underline{H}) \underline{P}_i. \quad (3)$$

A straightforward summation operation now gives the macroscopic wear rate;

$$\dot{\underline{V}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \dot{\underline{V}}_i = (\underline{\eta} \underline{v}_0 / \alpha \pi \underline{H}) \sum_{i=1}^N \underline{P}_i = \underline{\eta} \underline{v}_0 \underline{P} / \alpha \pi \underline{H}. \quad (4)$$

This equation may be rearranged,

$$\dot{\underline{V}} / \underline{v}_0 \underline{P} = \underline{\eta} / \alpha \pi \underline{H}, \quad (5)$$

such that the left and right sides conveniently represent macroscopic and microscopic parameters respectively.* It would thus appear possible to predetermine the abrasive wear rate of brittle ceramics simply from quantities measured in standard hardness testing procedures.

Some data from soda-lime glass illustrate the principle. Taking $\underline{H} \approx 1.0 \times 10^{10} \text{ Nm}^{-2}$ ("dynamic" hardness)⁸, $\alpha \approx 1$ (conical particles), $\underline{\eta} \approx 1$, we predict $\underline{\eta} / \alpha \pi \underline{H} \approx 3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ N}^{-1}$ as the wear rate. This compares with $\dot{\underline{V}} / \underline{v}_0 \underline{P} \approx 1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ N}^{-1}$ measured under test conditions in which chipping is pronounced (namely, spherical specimens on an alumina grinding block pre-ground with 45 μm diamond paste, decyl alcohol environment, at $\underline{P} = 10 \text{ N}$, $\underline{v}_0 = 1 \text{ ms}^{-1}$)⁹.

There are some interesting implications associated with the present model:

(i) The calculated wear rate is independent of the (apparent) area of contact between work tool and specimen, and also of the number and size of indenting particles. Thus, all arbitrariness and complication of a statistical analysis is avoided. Physically, this

*A term equivalent to that on the left of (5), $\Delta \underline{V} / \underline{P} \Delta \underline{t}$, is often used as an alternative expression of the macroscopic wear rate.

arises because of the essential "linearity" of the fixed-abrasive wear mechanism: the chip volume is proportional to the load on the indenting particle, so that the total volume removed does not depend on the way in which the total load is distributed.

(ii) The analysis tacitly assumes that the intensity of the residual stress field about the deformation track is sufficiently high to drive the chip-forming cracks to the surface. The indication from indentation fracture mechanics studies¹⁰ is that the extent of micro-cracking relative to the size of the deformation zone diminishes with decreasing load. Thus we might anticipate a brittle-to-ductile, chipping-to-ploughing transition in wear mechanism at low abrasion loads, small particle sizes, with an attendant fall in wear rate to a value more typical of non-brittle solids¹. Again, it has been assumed that geometrical similarity is preserved in the indentation fracture process. In practice, initially sharp particles tend to become "blunt" (either by fragmentation or by clogging with debris), and intersections tend to occur between neighboring tracks, as abrasion proceeds; these effects will further reduce the wear rate.

(iii) Most significantly, the wear rate under ideal chipping conditions is uniquely determined by the material hardness; by controlling the scale of the crack pattern behind the indenting particle, the "plasticity" properties of the material assume a key role in the abrasion process. However, hardness is a rate-dependent quantity which can change markedly with the conditions of testing, e.g. environment, load rate (sliding velocity), etc.^{8,11} This bears strongly on the

correlations between a wide range of chemo-mechanical properties (e.g. machining, drilling, grinding) and the hardness of brittle materials reported by Westwood and co-workers¹². While the present model may provide a sound basis for interpreting chemo-mechanical phenomena, it needs to be emphasised that correlations of this type can be truly meaningful only if the hardness values are measured under conditions pertinent to the macroscopic situation.

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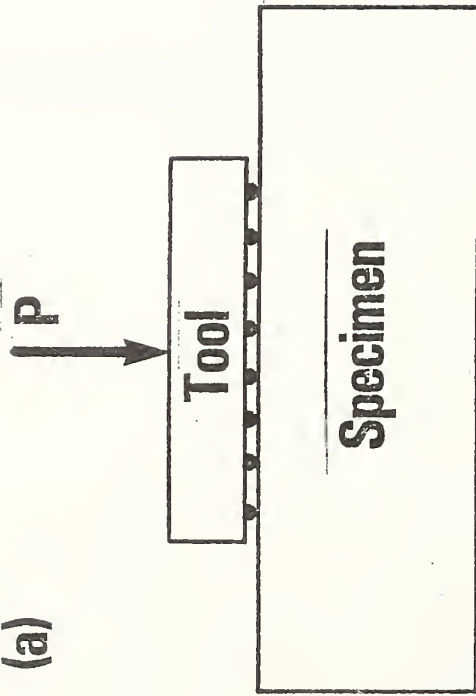
Figure Captions

1. Cross-sectional views of "fixed" abrasion process. (a) Macroscopic view: total load \underline{P} bears on specimen via abrasive grit particles bonded to tool. (b) Microscopic view: \underline{i} th particle experiences load \underline{P}_i , and leaves in its wake a deformation track, width $2\underline{a}_i$, from which "lateral vents" propagate to form chip, section area \underline{A}_i . All particles translate across specimen surface with velocity \underline{v}_0 .

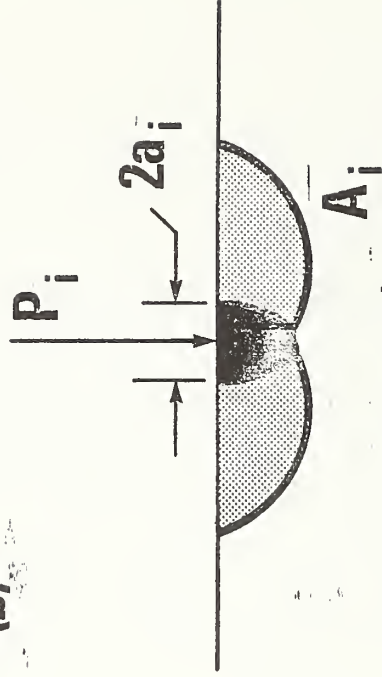
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(a)



(b)



A MODEL FOR THE WEAR OF BRITTLE SOLIDS

UNDER FIXED ABRASIVE CONDITIONS

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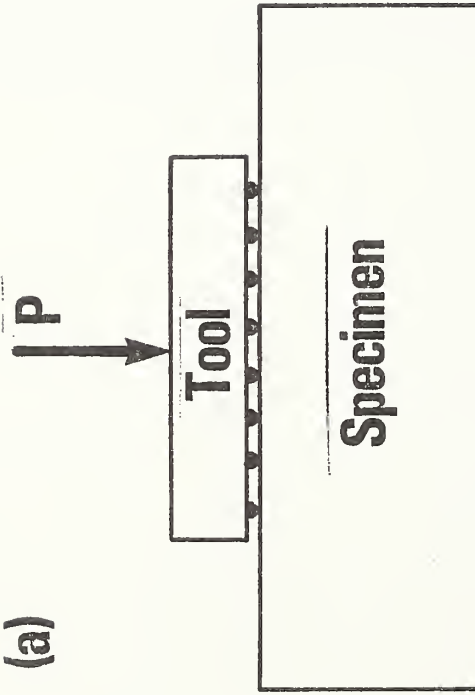
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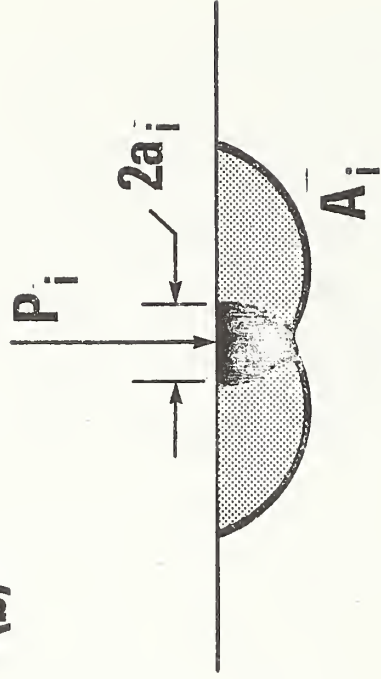
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1. Cross-sectional views of "fixed" abrasion process. (a) Macroscopic view: total load \underline{P} bears on specimen via abrasive grit particles bonded to tool. (b) Microscopic view: \underline{i} th particle experiences load \underline{P}_i , and leaves in its wake a deformation track, width $2\underline{a}_i$, from which "lateral vents" propagate to form chip, section area \underline{A}_i . All particles translate across specimen surface with velocity \underline{v}_o .

(a)



(b)



On the Mode of Chipping Fracture in Brittle Solids

Chipping processes in brittle solids, despite their unquestionable relevance to a diversity of technologies from ceramics finishing to geological engineering, are not well understood at the fundamental level. Some recent studies of microfracture patterns beneath standard hardness indenters do, however, shed some light on the problem^{1, 2}.

Essentially, the picture which emerges is that depicted in Fig. 1:

(i) Upon loading the indenter a confined zone of irreversible (plastic) deformation forms about any sharp points or corners (thereby accounting for the residual hardness impression), from which "median vent" cracks first initiate and subsequently propagate radially outward along suitable planes of symmetry (e.g. as defined by the diagonals of a pyramid indenter, or by preferred cleavage planes) containing the contact axis; (ii) Upon unloading the indenter the median vents close up, but, just prior to complete removal, "lateral vent" cracks initiate and extend laterally from the deformation zone toward the specimen surface. Of the two types of cracking it is clearly the second which relates more directly to brittle chipping.

Yet up till now a detailed fracture mechanics analysis has been attempted only for the median vent system. This system is relatively well defined, since the indentation stress field, which uniquely determines the extent of crack growth¹, can reasonably be represented in terms of the classical Boussinesq field for normal point loading^{2, 3}. On the basis of the fundamental Griffith energy-balance condition for fracture⁴ it may readily be argued that brittle cracks will generally

tend to follow trajectories of the lesser principal stresses within the indentation field, such that the path maintains near-orthogonality to a component of major tension: the best-studied illustration of this principle is the Hertzian cone crack^{5, 6}, which, in the absence of any deformation-induced nucleation center, initiates from an incipient surface flaw and flares downward into the specimen.

In the scheme of Fig. 2, in which the principal stresses are defined such that $\sigma_{11} \geq \sigma_{22} \geq \sigma_{33}$ (positive values denoting tension) nearly everywhere, median vent geometry may be specified in terms of families of σ_{11} and σ_{33} trajectories, cone crack geometry in terms of families of σ_{22} and σ_{33} trajectories.

The conditions under which the lateral vents form are, unfortunately, less easily modelled. Since the lateral system operates only as the indenter is withdrawn from the specimen surface it is evident that the driving force for propagation must originate from some residual stress field associated with the irreversible deformation zone. This conclusion is substantiated by microscopic investigation of the damage patterns as a function of indenter geometry (e.g. "sharp" or "blunt"): in general, the extent of lateral venting is found to increase markedly with expanding zone size. A graphic illustration of the effect is obtained by loading a soda-lime glass plate with a small (1mm diam.) spherical indenter: at comparatively low load the contact is elastic, and the only fracture is that of cone cracking, whereas at higher load some plasticity develops beneath the penetrating sphere, and lateral venting begins to establish itself¹. A manifestation of this behavior was reported by Culf⁷, who observed otherwise

regular cone cracks in glass to deflect upward ("hat brim" effect) upon sudden release of the indenter load. Culf also observed considerable residual stress birefringence in association with this phenomenon, over distances large compared with the scale of the deformation zone itself. That residual stresses exist about hardness impressions in most brittle materials has been amply demonstrated by a number of strain-sensitive techniques⁸. That these stresses can also be moderately long-range in nature is seen most clearly in the distances over which relaxation by plastic flow (e.g. dislocation loop punching) occurs in annealing experiments⁹. Neither the existence nor the intensity of the residual elastic fields should come as any surprise, for the stress levels achieved beneath the indenter in hardness tests on highly brittle solids tend to be of the order of the intrinsic bond strength of the structure^{10, 11}, and the relief of these high stresses would ideally require the impressed region to restore completely to its original unstrained state.

These observations, coupled with a reexamination of the Boussinesq field, provide us with the basis for an analysis of lateral vent geometry. We note that the lateral vents extend in all cases on surfaces closely delineated by families of σ_{11} and σ_{22} trajectories in Fig. 2 (although the paths are modified somewhat by the deformation zone itself, and by free surfaces, including any preexisting median vents or cone cracks); it is as if the applied load were actually reversed upon indenter withdrawal, so that the σ_{33} stress normal to the lateral vent becomes the dominant component of tension in the field. Of course, it is

physically meaningless to associate a reversed applied load with a surface in the unloaded state, but an effectively similar net result may obtain if the deformation zone were to act as a center of contraction with respect to the surrounding elastic matrix. This is depicted schematically in Fig. 3. The distribution of stresses at the zone boundary must inevitably depend strongly on the nature of the irreversible deformation, which itself remains an issue of some controversy^{11, 12}. Nevertheless, one can proceed by making reasonable assumptions as to this distribution (e.g. that the tractions are of constant magnitude, and are directed such that the net force is zero), and evaluate the residual field in the matrix by taking expressions for the stresses due to elemental point forces (e.g. Mindlin¹³) and integrating around the boundary. One may then construct a stress trajectory pattern for the field, in analogy to Fig. 2, and thereby trace out probable fracture paths from the deformation zone. Full details of such calculations will be discussed elsewhere; we simply report here that the predicted paths do indeed curve toward the specimen surface in essentially the manner shown in Fig. 1.

The scope of the present model extends well beyond the establishment of a suitable basis for evaluating an "index of brittleness" in standard hardness testing¹⁴. It provides physical insight into a number of seemingly unrelated phenomena in brittle solids:

(i) Strength degradation. Surface damage introduced into a brittle surface as a result of contact (either static or impact) with hard particles constitutes a potential source of weakness. The mechanics of the damage process may be conveniently simulated in a simple indentation test¹⁵.

(ii) Glass cutting. A glass cutter's wheel is designed to produce a continuous "trailing" median vent as a linear starting crack for subsequent plate fracture in flexure. However, lateral venting invariably occurs in the wake of the moving "indenter", thereby damaging the edges of the final cut. Clearly, the objective here is to find a way of suppressing the chipping mode.

(iii) Surface removal processes. Individual chipping events in the machining, drilling, grinding, abrasion, erosion and wear of brittle surfaces in general (e.g. ceramics, gemstones, rocks) are of the type depicted in Fig. 1¹. By summing over an appropriate distribution of such microscopic events it should be possible to describe macroscopic surface removal parameters at a fundamental level.

(iv) Geophysical impact phenomena. Meteorite-induced craters ranging in scale from geological land masses¹⁶ to lunar fines¹⁷ bear a resemblance to the damage pattern in Fig. 1 which can only be described as striking. While thermal and stress-wave effects associated with the high-velocity impacts are undoubtedly important factors in these cases¹⁸, the possible role of residual stresses about the central "deformation zone" in determining crater morphology may warrant further attention.

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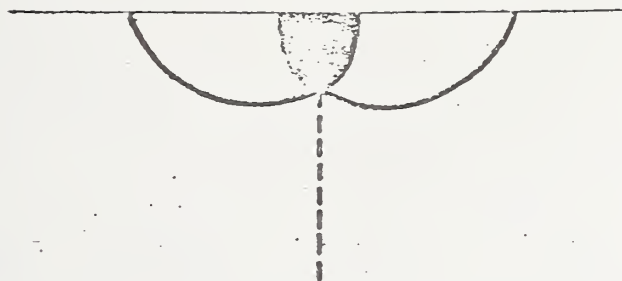
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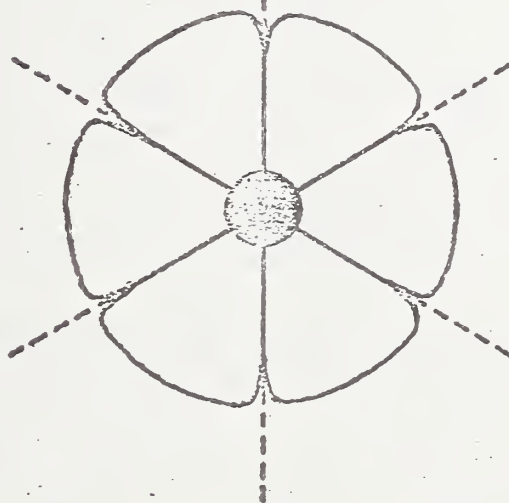
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1. Fracture geometry beneath sharp indenter. Central deformation zone shown as dark region, median vent cracks as broken lines, lateral vent cracks as heavy lines. (a) Section view schematic, (b) plan view schematic, (c) surface view of fused silica indented with sharp, irregular particle (scanning electron micrograph).
2. Stress trajectories (curves whose tangent indicates direction of principal stress) for Boussinesq field, showing half-surface view (top) and section view (bottom). Cone cracks initiate from incipient surface flaws and propagate everywhere orthogonally to σ_{11} (tensile outside contact area), median vents initiate from central deformation zone and propagate orthogonally to σ_{22} (tensile below contact zone), lateral vents initiate from deformation zone and propagate nearly orthogonally to σ_{33} (compressive everywhere, but tensile if applied load reversed).
3. Schematic representation of distribution of mismatch tractions at boundary between central deformation zone and surrounding elastic matrix, at indenter withdrawal.

(a)

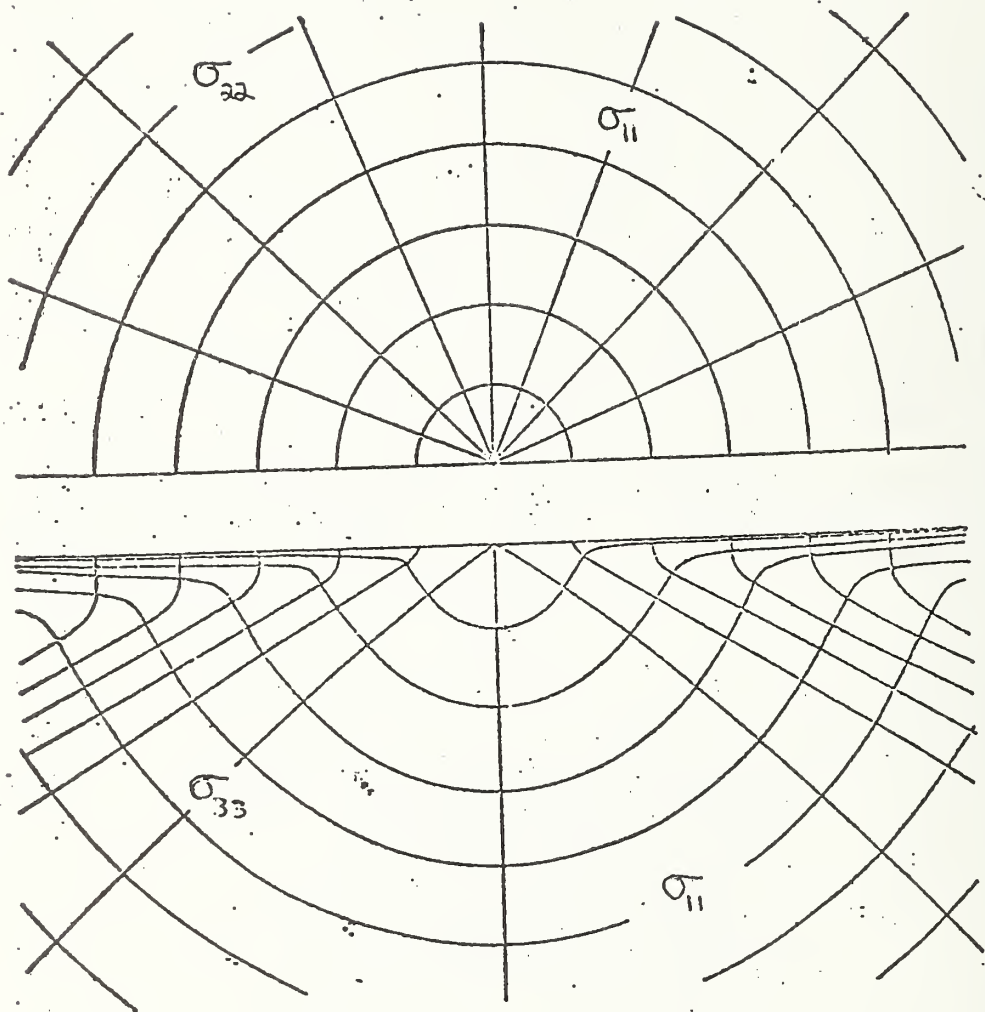


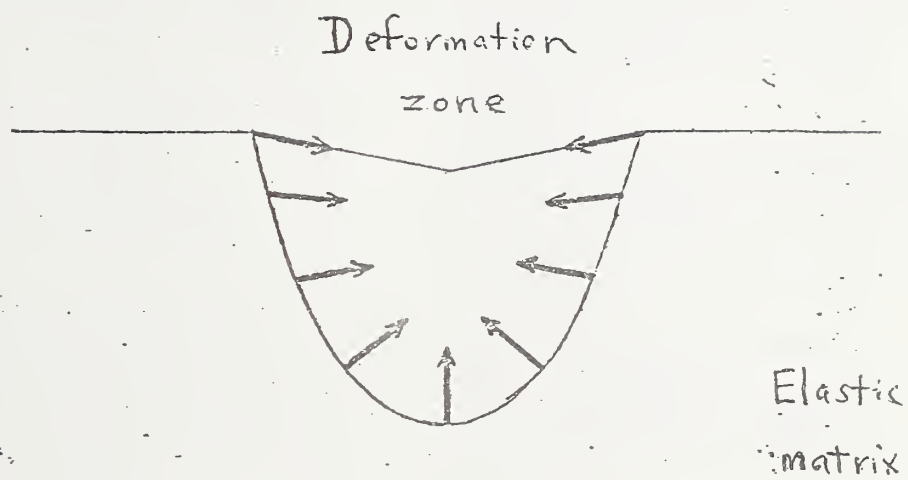
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(c)







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| 16. ABSTRACT (A 200-word or less factual summary of most significant information. If document includes a significant bibliography or literature survey, mention it here.) A description is given of the mode of chipping fracture observed in highly brittle solids. It is pointed out that residual stresses about indentation deformation centers play a vital role. The implications of this mode in a number of mechanical phenomena are discussed. An explicit model for the wear of brittle surfaces under fixed abrasive conditions is presented in terms of indentation fracture concepts. The predicted wear rate for glass agrees with that observed experimentally to within an order of magnitude. Some implications concerning the parameters which influence the abrasion process, particularly the hardness, are discussed. | | 13. Type of Report & Period Covered Interim 7/1/74 - 6/30/75 | |
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